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# JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

# JOURNAL of EDUCATION

**Volume 137** **May, 1955** **Number 8**

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# *The Keys to a Teaching Career*

### *By Florence J. Johnson*

There are twenty-six letters in the alphabet. They are twenty-six keys to a successful career as a teacher, as an instructor of the youth of the world, who are children today, and leaders tomorrow. Are you prepared? Do you know the twenty-six keys? Let's check.

**A—Ambition.** You must be ambitious, have a definite aim, a goal to reach . . . that of a successful, well-liked teacher.

**B—Books.** It is through books that children learn, as well as through the lessons that life gives out first hand. Teach them to know books, to love them. They are not pages put together just to confound them. They are the tellers of the past, and the guideposts to the future.

**C—Courtesy.** Be courteous to the children. They can sense it when they are slighted. Courtesy shown to them will be returned likewise.

**D—Discipline.** Discipline is necessary. You are not teaching one child, you have many. There is a need for certain rules. They may seem arbitrary, but you have a heavy responsibility.

**E—Enthusiasm.** Be enthusiastic about your job. Keep up with the new methods, adapt the new ideas so they will fit into your schedule.

**F—Family.** The family is important. Keep in touch with them. Have regular consultations with them about the child's progress in school work.

**G—Games.** Be an active participant in games. See to it that the child learns sportsmanship.

**H—Health.** Keep in good health. A healthy body means an alert mind. Keep a close watch over the children, for the telltale signs of serious illnesses.

**I—Ideas.** Don't be afraid of new ideas. Let the children contribute some. They may and can surprise you with their inventiveness. Some may be quite fantastic, but the majority will be usable and colored with the freshness of youth.

**J—Journey.** Make each day a new journey, a trip to take, with many strange things to see and to learn.

**K—Kindergarten.** The little folks in the kindergarten are just starting out in the big world. Lead them carefully, give them ample time to get acquainted. Don't open the door to the future with a bang. Mother's apron strings have up to now always been right at hand. They want to walk alone. They don't want your hand to cling to, but they want to know it's there, ready to catch hold of, if fear should overcome that first wobbly wall of way-from-home bravery.

**L—Leniency.** Be lenient when need for punishment comes up. It may not have been a deliberate disobeying of orders.

**M—Mind.** Be careful of what you say, of what you do. You are teaching impressionable minds.

**N—Non-Partisan.** Be a non-partisan in neighborhood and family disputes. You are teaching children from both factions.

**O—Order.** Keep your records in order. Follow a system that keeps your files, your books and papers readily available.

**P—Patience.** This is something that every teacher needs to have a large supply of. An irritable teacher is not a good instructor.

**Q—Question.** Don't be impatient at the questions a child asks. He wants to know. You're the teacher. You should know, even if it is the batting average of the current baseball hero. They expect you to know. Don't fail them.

**R—Routine.** A regular routine is best. A certain time for each lesson, a method of instruction that follows a definite pattern, is what the child likes at the beginning, until he gets into the swing of it. As he advances up the scholastic ladder, then you throw in a few surprises, an unexpected test, a new way of presenting the lesson, to keep him alert and up to schedule in the work assigned.

**S—School.** Make the child's school days happy ones. They are days of youth, days of learning that life isn't all play, that there are lessons to be learned. It's the teacher who can make them glad memories.

**T—Trust.** The parents of the children are trusting you. Be worthy of that trust. For several hours a day you are the children's guide and monitor. Don't lead them astray.

*(Continued on page 6)*

# Nursery Education - Our Responsibility

### By Elizabeth C. Lloyd

During the 1940 White House Conference, we were challenged with the slogan *Our Concern: Every Child.* Since that time we have seen improvement in many different kinds of situations relating to the educational and environmental conditions of children. However, there has been a blind spot in these improvement programs regarding the early education of children. It would seem that educators, particularly in the public schools, would now recognize and accept their share of the guilt. To be specific, too many of us have closed our eyes to the rapid growth of nursery schools and play groups in our various communities. We have failed to see their significance in relation to the public school systems. In this connection, it is the purpose of this article to suggest that there are many reasons why public school educators should assume responsibility for the nursery school education program in this country, just as they have begun to do for the kindergarten program; to develop a brief description of a good nursery program; to point out the reasons for the need for enforcement of standards with respect to all groups organized for three- and four-year-olds; and finally to set forth a number of action suggestions for the consideration of public school personnel.

Our lack of foresight has many causes, of course, but there are three which are quite common. The first is our personal lack of accurate information as to the meaning and value of nursery education. Second, we see too much generalized prejudice resulting from isolated cases where the nursery school experience has been undesirable. Third, there is the ostrich head-in-the-sand attitude where some of us see no relationship at all between nursery schools and the public schools. These causes are evident in such statements— "*we* got along fine *without* nursery school—they are mostly private schools so are of no concern to us—all young children belong at home with their mothers—nursery schools may be all right for problem children—we have seen the results of some poor nursery schools reflected in the behavior of our kindergarten and first grade children so we know nursery education is no good."

The time has come for educators to begin to see their very definite responsibility for organized groups of young children. A fighting stand must be taken for what we know are the best conditions for early child growth and development. We educators are the ones who are supposed to be trained to understand the terrific impact of experiences during the formative years of a child's life. We know that a child brings to kindergarten or first grade the sum total of his experiences including his developing feelings about school, about people, and about the world in general. We know that early experiences can make or break a child's good adjustment to the elementary school. We know that previous group or school experiences can influence the attitudes of parents toward another school. Parents can develop feelings of no identification or interest, or the feelings that they are wanted and needed as co-workers in the educational experience of their children.

How can we say, then, that nursery age groups are no concern of ours? For a rapidly increasing number of children and parents, these groups, rather than the kindergarten or first grade, are now providing their orientation to school life. We are forced to take children they prepare for us. The quality of such schools will partially determine whether the children entering our elementary schools are eager, responsive, creative, secure in their own feelings and their social relationships, and with the beginnings of the feeling of wanting to belong to a group; or rebellious, fearful, bored, and stereotyped in their reactions. In other words, the lower school age limit has slipped from the age of six even though the younger children may not be under our immediate jurisdiction.

Lack of community concern for the welfare of children always has been difficult to comprehend—especially when grievances against children are often as glaring and obvious as slum conditions. It is easier to understand the apathy of both the educator and layman toward the conditions found in many nursery groups. Nursery education is less familiar to most educators and the specific schools are often not accessible to us. Nor can we expect all parents to choose a nursery school experience for their children wisely. However, it *is* difficult to understand why some parents are willing to accept such harmful physical and emotional conditions as are found in some groups organized for young children. Many parents will accept blindly a nursery group without seeing the entire plant (or sometimes, even the school itself). Nor do they visit during school hours to observe health and safety conditions; discuss qualifications of teachers; or judge the value of the particular school, the teacher, the specific group of children, the program, the time schedule in terms of their own child's needs and personality.

Before defining further just what our responsibility may be in regard to the education of young children, it is necessary to clarify the terms used for the different types of groups organized for them. We also need to look at what constitutes good nursery education.

A good nursery *school* is designed to meet *all* of the needs of the child and assumes equal concern and provision for every facet of child growth. More loosely organized groups are designed just for play experiences and are more popularly known as play schools and play groups. There are also community or privately supported day care centers where the focus has been primarily on the physical care of children necessary for working parents. In the remainder of this discussion, it is assumed that we mean a good nursery school when any kind of recommendation for approval or support is being made.

The following description takes into consideration the conditions which are best for young children. Inherent in this discussion are the standards toward which all sincere groups are working. Any major deviations from them would be cause for questioning on the part of parents or anyone else with concern for children.

A good nursery school is a group situation designed to meet the developmental needs and interest of three- and four-year-olds. Because of our increasing knowledge of this age level and our extensive observations of their behavior in groups, we are now seriously questioning the advisability of organized group experience for two-year-olds. At this age, emotional ties with the parents are still very strong. It is very easy to hurt a child by cutting these ties before he is able to adjust easily and naturally to an outside group. Five-year-olds are usually omitted from a nursery school because of the increasing acceptance of the kindergarten as part of the regular elementary school program. However, when the five *are* included, the school becomes of even greater concern for us as they tie more directly into our first grades.

In organization, the age groups are separated for the majority of their experiences and the maximum numbers run around fifteen or less in the threes and twenty in the fours (and these figures may be high for maximum benefit).

As for the staff in a good nursery school, there is a minimum of two teachers per group with one teacher for every eight or ten children. They are trained both in the understanding of the behavior of young children and in the techniques of working effectively with them. They have not only training but also the necessary personality factors including genuine, wholesome affection for children and a natural acceptance of all children and parents. If an entire staff of trained teachers is impossible, at least the director or head teacher is well trained and is competent in training assistants through an in-service program. In other words, such qualifications as "liking children" and "having two of my own" as the *only* criteria for selection of teachers are not found in a good nursery school.

The good nursery school has a flexible program providing a great variety of experiences developed to meet both group and individual interests. There is emphasis on free play and the use of creative materials but there are many opportunities for exploring the physical world and for establishing contacts with interesting and challenging people. Enforced group experience is not found in a good nursery school where focus is on the needs and abilities of young children.

The good nursery school, too, assumes close working relationships between school and parents. Parents are not only welcomed but are encouraged to have an active share in the program as the most effective means of gaining a better understanding of their children. Developing such an understanding is considered to be one of the major purposes of nursery education. In such an atmosphere and organization, there is a feeling of mutual interest and responsibility and a genuine desire on the part of the parent for help in becoming a more effective parent. Within such an atmosphere one rarely finds the kind of parent who wants to shift his responsibility—to find a teacher who will substitute for him or her in the various roles which need to be played by a parent.

Above all else, the good nursery school focuses on the individual child and his needs and capacity for a group experience rather than on its own income. Conferences are held with the parents and the child is observed before his acceptance by the school. Even after a child becomes a member of the group, if his adjustment proves too much of a strain for him, there are no qualms about suggesting either that he is not yet ready for such an experience or that the frequency and length of his attendance should be planned for him individually.

The good nursery school accepts its position in our educational framework and develops an active program of interpreting its role and relating itself to the

**"A good nursery school is designed to meet all of the needs of the child and assumes equal concern and provision for every facet of child growth."**

public school. There is cooperation for the best adjustment of the child to the public school and the findings of the nursery school may become the first part of the child's cumulative record. Nursery, kindergarten, and first grade teachers and parents become a team for furthering better understanding and guidance in the years of early childhood.

In these "good" schools are seen the real values of nursery education for children—an increasing realization and acceptance of self-including limitations and capabilities; improved techniques of relating themselves to peers and adults; a developing awareness of and interest in the physical and social world around them; a growing zest for learning with a reaching out toward new experiences; and a growing liking for being with small groups at the same time as their individual interests and abilities are being developed.

The above description of good nursery education is an important consideration for educators to ponder since so many other kinds of groups are increasing rapidly on every economic level in our society. The early nursery schools introduced into the United States in the period between around 1915 and the early Twenties fell largely into select groups—experimental schools in connection with our Universities, the private schools for the upper economic groups, and the day care centers for working parents. For the average income groups, nursery education was not considered necessary either for educational purposes or for family relief. During the Forties, however, there began to be a noticeable change which seemed to be a result of the influence of the schools opened before and under the Lanham Act during the war and of the increasing "popularity" of the nursery school idea. Many parents had found the schools a good experience for their children and wanted them continued. At the same time, other sincere parents were hearing about the success of many of our war nurseries and were beginning also to see numerous articles on the values of nursery education. They wanted such an experience for their children, too. Other parents, however, had found it very convenient to put their children in a school while they supplemented their family income, and they saw no reason for their discontinuing this welcome addition. Their interest was in the income and not in what was happening to the child. Other parents were discovering that nursery groups were a dependable and relatively inexpensive baby-sitting service. These vastly different interests have been quite strong and widespread and have been the major causes of the mushroom growth of substandard playschools and so-called nursery schools.

It has been interesting to note, too, that much the same factors have been seen operating in the minds of would-be teachers and directors. Some have been genuinely interested in young children and have been desirous of providing good group experiences for them. However, because of the still appalling lack of adequate nursery education training programs in most of our communities, many of these people have had to be self-trained. Some few of them have done a fairly adequate job and should be commended for their efforts but for most of them the task was too great and their schools have joined the great number of undesirables.

Among these substandard groups, we also find those schools "run" by people who have had other and quite varied reasons for getting into the business. Following are some actual reasons which have been given:

> I was a masseur during the war and learned how to work with children.—
>
> My children are older now and no longer use the play equipment in our backyard and it might as well be used by somebody.—
>
> I have a sister who is a kindergarten teacher in another state and she can send me materials on how to run a nursery.—
>
> My mornings are free and I'd like to pick up a little extra money.—
>
> I don't have any kids of my own but I've always liked 'em and people say I'm good with 'em. They're cute when they're little, aren't they?—

Do we have to be highly imaginative to question what is happening to children under the guidance of such teachers? In these kinds of situations we find groups of twenty or more children under the supervision of one adult and a program of rigidly scheduled total-group experiences lasting for two or more hours. Little equipment exists other than paper, crayons, and a few books. There very often is no play space indoors and children have to sit at tables for the entire session. There is great emphasis on manuscript printing (or more often just capital letters), reading readiness workbooks and coloring books which they claim "get these children ready for school." Often the teachers employed believe that *strict* discipline (with absolute quiet and frequent punishment) at this age is the only salvation for the youth of our society. Exaggerated statements? Not at all—these happen to be some real life situations.

These then are our children, our parents—and, yes, our schools. They are ours, even if only because they are in our communities which we are supposed to serve and where we should provide understanding and leadership in all matters which in any way concern growing children. They are ours because they are the foundations on which we must build. They have become the first rung of our educational ladder. Therefore, we must begin on a positive program for the establishment of the best possible conditions. While each school and its community must define its own needs and develop its own procedures, the following suggestions may be helpful.

> Become intelligently informed about nursery education—its values, its dangers, its minimum essentials for being considered adequate.
>
> Become aware through school and lay surveys of the already existing nursery groups; how many, where they are located and their quality.
>
> Acquaint our parents and others in our own school community with the standards for good

*(Continued on page 18)*

# Why Don't You Write?

### By Edna Harrison

As a teacher you have everything it takes. Why not use what you have? There are things you know that no one else knows. Why not tell others about them—in writing?

Parents like to read about the interesting way in which you get their children to do the things that they themselves can't get them to do. You were the one who showed Johnny that school could be fun and his mother was grateful forever afterward. You were the one who discovered the frustrations behind that awful tantrum Susie had. That, too, would make a good article. Well, why don't you write?

It is out of your vast store of experience that knowledge comes. Why not hunt out that little blue notebook and start now to write down the ideas that have already begun to come to your mind. Don't put it away. Call it your "Tip Book" and take it with you wherever you go. Think of all the times you have listened to a lecture, or watched the children at work or play, and thought to yourself, "If I could only write, I'd send that one in." Next time, jot the idea down, take it home and start in.

Now consider for a few minutes how to go about writing the article. First of all it has to be slanted for a particular magazine. If it's an idea primarily for parents, there are a number of good magazines to consider, as *Parent-Teacher, Parent's Magazine, Parents' Institute* and others. If you'd rather write your first article for one of your own professional magazines, write as if you were talking to one of your teacher friends. Simple language is the best. Write about why Johnny did what he did and how Susie learned to get along with other people.

You might stop here and ask yourself a few questions. (1) What do I really want to say? (2) What are the facts? Formulate the answers to these questions in a sentence or short paragraph and you have the central idea for the article.

Now plan your article. Suppose you are going to write up the story about Susie. You might make an outline something like this:

1. Susie presents a problem.
2. There are reasons behind her tantrum.
3. How I found out those reasons.
4. What I did about each of them.
5. What I might have done, but didn't.
6. The outcome.

This forms the body of the article. The rest of it will depend upon the audience you select and how you expect them to use it.

Fine, you say. Now when do I begin writing? Before you start, take a look at the magazine for which you are writing. What type of reading public is it edited and published for? Study several recent issues. Examine the advertisements. They will tell you something about the kind of public the magazine reaches.

Answer the following questions in your tip book. Is the audience young, old or middle-aged? Rich or poor or average? Well educated or not. Professional, business people, or unskilled laborers? What you write to them and how you write it is important. All of this will determine your style and treatment of the article.

The preliminaries are done, so write your story. It doesn't matter too much how you do it. Just write. This is the first draft, anyway, and there will be much polishing to do, so get something ready to polish. Don't stop until you have the whole story written and then put it away until tomorrow.

**"Think of all the times you have . . . watched the children at work and thought, 'If I could only write, I'd send that one in.' "**

After you've had a good night's sleep and a cup of black coffee, read your story. It doesn't seem as good today, does it? They all sound that way the next morning.

Don't be discouraged. Read it again and you'll see that you do have a good story after all. With a few changes and a good beginning, you have something.

Look around for that good beginning. Take out several issues of this magazine you're writing for and read the opening paragraphs. The informal style is popular now. Notice the different types of opening.

An opening begins where the reader is. For the story about Johnny you might ask, "Does your child hate school? As a fifth grade teacher, I have had a number of such children in my room. This is what I did . . . "

Or, "How can you find the answers to the embarrassing questions your child asks? Such as . . . " That kind of opening strikes squarely on the point of need.

Another type opening could be the businesslike direct statement of purpose. You lay your cards on the table and let the reader choose whether he wishes to proceed:

"This article will tell you why Johnny hates school and what you can do about it."

"This is an explanation of the psychological reasons back of Susie's tantrums."

"This is how I would answer the embarrassing questions children ask such as . . . "

Whatever opening you use, carry through with a good narrative and your readers will stay with you. Decide which opening would fit your story best, and write from that angle. Now go over your story with a blue pencil and mark out the unnecessary parts, shift any sentences, words or phrases about to make the thought clearer. Use this for your motto: "When in doubt—cut it out." Then, using your new beginning, rewrite the whole story.

All that remains to be done is to get your title page in order. Put your name and address in the upper left-hand corner, the number of words in the right. Put the title in the center of the page and your name under it. Four spaces further down begin your story. Indent five spaces, double space, make a carbon copy. Put the original in an envelope, with a return addressed envelope carrying the same amount of postage as the outside one. Address it to the editor of your magazine and mail.

There are other things you will want to know about magazine article writing. What about copyright? How to keep from getting involved with libel? How careful must you be in the matter of refraining from invading another's privacy? What shall you do about illustrations? Where can you learn more about style and semantics? All this can be found in books on magazine article writing at the public library. Better still, get one of your own, such as *Magazine Article Writing*, by Brennecke and Clark.

Now that you've sent in your first article, why not start work on the one about Johnny? Query the editor on this one. Get him interested before you start to write. But whatever you do—write!

### *The Keys to a Teaching Career*

*(Continued from page 1)*

**U—Uniform.** Be uniform in giving out punishment and awards. Children are quick to spot favoritism.

**V—Voice.** Is your voice low and soft? Does it rise to a strident note when you are irritated? Watch your voice. The children will know by the tone of your voice how far they can go in willful needling.

**W—Wardrobe.** Don't have an elaborate wardrobe. And, don't go in for dark, serviceable clothes. Touch them up with bits of color. Children are color-conscious.

**X—X-cellence.** Don't be chary with praise. That single word "excellent" given verbally or written across the test paper means a lot to a child.

**Y—Youth.** Be humble and be wise. On your shoulders rests the training of the youth of today. Tomorrow, they will be leaders in different walks of life. Have you set their feet firmly in the right direction?

**Z—Zest.** Have an ardent zest for your career. Study it, keep on learning. It is a noble profession.

Do you know the twenty-six keys to a successful career as a teacher?

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# A "Newspaper" for Your Room

## By Michael G. Mensoian

Have you, as a fifth or sixth grade teacher, given any thought to a monthly room newspaper? Often work of this nature is reserved for junior-senior high school where it is done on a school basis and the emphasis is on news. It can, however, be a year-round project, co-curricular in nature, for fifth graders. Here is an opportunity to use a room publication as a medium which will show parents what the school is doing and which will motivate children to write.

"The Columbian," as our room publication is called, is named after our school—Columbus Park. It is printed on 8½ x 11 inch white duplicating paper. The "presses" (duplicating machine) roll the third week of every month – October through May. Seventy copies are distributed on the following Monday. All of the children, parents, teachers, and local merchants who receive each issue enjoy our five-page publication.

Who is responsible for the selection of the contents of "The Columbian"? How is the news obtained? Is class time devoted to its preparation? Does everyone in the class participate or have an opportunity to participate?

The entire class has a part in "The Columbian." An Editorial Board was organized to represent this class interest and to act as a channel between the class and the teacher.

There are four students on this Board. Each was selected on the basis of his scholastic achievement, especially in language, and his cooperation and sociability as exhibited in school.

All material for publication passes through this board. Corrections are made and material carelessly prepared or improperly presented is rejected. Material must be submitted on either 6 x 9 inch manila paper or 7 x 8½ inch ruled white paper. Each must have a two-line heading.

A staff of four reporters gathers news items and material for publication submitted from other rooms. They are also responsible for reporting on the activities of the local Brownie and Girl Scout Troops and the Mothers' Club.

The job of duplicating, stapling, and distribution is handled by the four-member Circulation Department.

The official business of the publication is handled during two monthly meetings held after school. Not later than the second Monday of the month the Editorial Board meets and plans for the current issue. Problems such as the selection of a cover illustration, a theme for the Poetry Page or a topic for an editorial are worked on. Monthly features such as the Riddle Section, How Good Are You?, Did You Know That, and School News are assigned to the board members on a rotating basis.

Not later than the third Monday of the month a meeting of the Editorial Board and Reporters takes place. This meeting is the deadline for acceptance of material for publication. All material is presented, read aloud, and rejected or accepted. Reasons are given for each decision. Since a backlog of material is available the publishing of a good five-page issue is seldom a problem. If it is, we simply cut down to four pages. This has happened only once.

Throughout the meetings the teacher leads the group in an orderly attack on the business at hand. The desires of the teacher are not forced on the children, many times he is overruled by the group.

After the second meeting the master copies are typed by the teacher. By Thursday or Friday the Circulation Department and the teacher combine forces to duplicate and staple the current issue. On Monday all copies are ready for distribution.

On the following Tuesday or Wednesday fifteen to twenty minutes is devoted to constructive criticism of the issue and suggestions to improve the next month's issue. Other than this no formal class time is allotted for the preparation of the publication. All material is prepared either during study time when regular assignments are completed, at home, or as regular school work. The teacher sometimes selects material from the class work and presents it to the Staff which makes final decision.

During our first year, 1952-1953, our publication carried paid advertisements from the neighborhood stores. We charged only a token fee—ten cents for the front page, five cents elsewhere. The amount of work involved in relation to the educational advantages derived from this aspect of publishing the paper caused us to discontinue it.

Without laboring the point it can be seen that good language habits, neatness, legibility, and punctuality, to meet press time are placed at a premium. To be told by your classmates, members of the Editorial Board, that you have certain mistakes in punctuation or spelling, that your paper is not neat, or that your writing can't be read has a sober effect upon an individual. He is more likely to try to meet their demands than those of the teacher.

The bright pupil with time is given an opportunity to use his ability and time in a challenging task.

To imply that a room publication can do this or that is not the purpose of this article. As a co-curricular activity it can be a unifying force which will motivate pupils to do their best in all school work. It is from these other areas that the major portion of the content of the publication is drawn. As an independent project, publication of a room newspaper has little place in the activities of the children. As a means for motivating children to write with initiative and originality, it has merits. Remember, a room publication is a means to an end and not the end in itself.

# Social Studies Utilize The Community

## By Ella A. Hawkinson

"Quit stuffing us, Harold. That shell was never picked up in your field."

"But I tell you it was. I'm not trying to tell any tall tales. Miss James, could you make these guys believe me?"

"It is a large shell. I have one, too, that a man operating a gravel pit twenty miles away brought me when I talked in his home town recently. He too was asking for an explanation. I asked him if he knew he was digging in the bank of an old lake. Do you know you are sitting in a lake bottom right now?"

Wide-eyed Mary's question, "How do you know? Do you remember it?" nearly upset the teacher's aplomb. From here, the pupil questions tumbled: for observable evidences, for written accounts, for answers from a geologist, and for ways in which they might prepare a model to explain the glacial age story.

Inquiry that reaches back in both time and space from child curiosity is great. From this group of doubters came not only a story of the ice age but also the story of the economic importance of the "lake bottom" on which their homes, schools, and livelihood depended.

### Extent of Community

Chance artifacts may create interest but it would certainly be a fallacy to consider them regular factors in promoting the understanding of and action in "the every-day world laboratory," the community. The social studies teacher today recognizes that in building for better social relations, the pupil will always be an interpreter and actor in some community and therefore needs to have opportunities both to understand and to act on many matters with his peers and elders. Such opportunities for interaction with people and things in the many communities within his community —the home, the school, the church, the club, the city— help to build concepts and skills and may do much to destroy apathy and build for an active socially responsible community member. It is with this philosophy that the program of education keeps its roots deep in the life of the community. The local community is the maturing child's laboratory for learning about man's way of life.

But, many will say that we seek a wider arena than the community,—namely the world as our circle today. The community is as Wesley says "more or less complete and self-sufficient" in one sense, but if one thinks of the business, religious and professional community, "one realizes its national, even universal, ramification. The community is the epitome of the world. It provides instances of every fundamental process, past and present." The local grocery store, the drug store, the newspaper office, the automobile shop, the library, the radio station, the Christmas toy shop, the newcomers' club, the college, the museum, the city system, have much akin with many parts of the world.

The local doctor shares the discoveries of all parts of the world when he treats Jimmy. The taxes Jimmy pays on the gift compact for mother go to the ends of the earth. The Christmas Carol he broadcasts reached homes thousands of miles away. Jimmy, living in Middletown, has many contacts and experiences which can be utilized to build a realization of interdependence. The big job of the social studies is to help students see how men work together by sharing ideas and effort, and to learn how to work together on problems in the several communities.

### Discovering and Gathering Materials

Henry Johnson writes in his *Teaching of History*, "In every community there should be, not merely such casual use of the local past and present as may happen to occur to the teacher, but a systematic search of local resources for points from which the pupil may begin his journeys to the past and to which he may return. The result should be an added sense of reality both of the past and of the present."

In any plan to use community resources for experiential education, a survey of possible sources for study should be made first by the teacher and enlarged by the pupils. Avenues are legion:

1. The people themselves by means of interviews, visits, talks, pupil accounts through family histories, old settlers' stories, migrant stories, veteran narratives, and business men's reports.
2. Objects from family heirlooms and collections to present day products in homes, industries, and public services.
3. Exhibits in museums or other depositories; temporary displays of materials especially arranged to teach through sequence or through means of comparison and contrast.
4. Community sources that will aid in selected areas as population, geography, industries, trade, communication, occupations, government services, standards of living, health, recreation, and education. These sources may be:
   a. Maps, city diagrams.
   b. Official reports of weather, crops, census.
   c. Local surveys of school and community problems through interested groups on recreational interests of pupils, reading interests as seen in purchases at magazine counters or library charges, attendance at movies.
   d. Reports by local, county, state, and federal

agents: conservation, 4H, and farm bureau agents.

e. Club reports: as 4H, agriculture, Future Farmers, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire, political organization.

f. Report through business concerns: bank, elevators, factories, transportation facilities, Chamber of Commerce.

g. Derived materials through advertisements, broadcast announcements, R.R. and bus schedules, travel folders, classified directories, Chamber of Commerce materials.

h. Records and reports by county and city officials: local ordinances, court records, vital statistics, mortgage and tax records, relief load and cost, social service reports, building permits, election returns, expenditures and receipts, accident records, law enforcement records, assessor's reports, school reports.

i. Replies to carefully constructed questionnaires.

j. Delegate reports by class representatives at meetings.

k. Diaries, account books, autobiographies, reminiscences, recollections, letters, deeds.

l. Observations through such avenues as: volume on business, types of purchases at different centers, specimen count: traffic at various hours or places, housing projects, church attendance.

m. Newspaper files in local and state historical libraries, advertising files of newspapers or stores over a period of time, photographers' files, albums, programs.

n. Pictorial collections in homes, libraries, newspapers.

o. Prepared accounts or special feature editions in newspapers, magazines, yearbooks.

p. Books and pamphlets related to background of problems.

q. Show windows, shelves in grocery stores, markets, hardware stores.

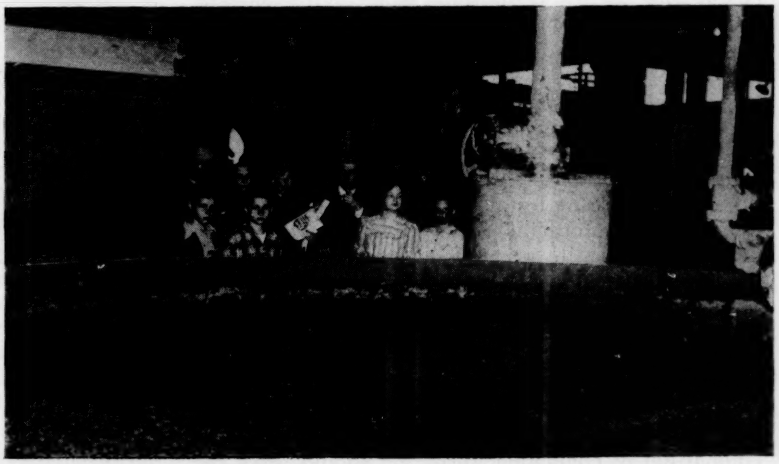
r. Places of business, private and public.

### School Uses of the Community

The school use of the community may function in many ways.

### 1. Observation and actual experience for information.

The study level depends on the maturity of the student and the functions sought. The simplest process is observation, but no process is segregated. The teacher in the beginning grades combines the search for information with cooperative action. The teacher realizes that the children must have experiences that are more real, varied, complete, intimate, emotionalized, and satisfying than those which often are sought too abruptly through books. For this reason, local and concrete materials have been used in elementary schools for a long time. The number of planned trips to observe community resources is increasing in the grades. Four Michigan school reports received by the writer list class visits to many institutions and affairs. Some have small groups of students visit, others single interviewers. Fewer mention bringing to the classroom the community demonstrators, speakers, objects, and pictures. In the simplest use of the community, the purpose is to secure meaningful information which is basic for class activities that expand meaning.



**These Kalamazoo sixth graders are watching old paper being dissolved and bleached at a near-by paper company.**

The study begins with problems to be answered. The pupils and teacher seek out all possible avenues for answers, including direct and vicarious experiences. The joint planning of the group for trips, interviews, or displays, is an important part of the citizenship experience. The decision on the activities that will be carried out in any unit must be measured in terms of goals—concepts, skills, attitudes.

### 2. Extraction principles and laws as understandings.

Without direct experiences or pictorial aids, a child too frequently feels no impact of the generalizations he so often reads in his textbooks. However, after a class follows the process of the packaging of frozen berries or beans from the farmer's wagon to the big

(Continued on next page)

freezing chambers, he arrives at many conclusions fundamental in such a business enterprise; as

a. Efficiency is secured by careful division of labor.

b. Many of the tasks require very brief training.

c. Machinery of the belt-line type sets the speed of operation required of all workers.

A class that reads, "Rome has had its impact on our age" may merely parrot this in a class recitation. But, if the teacher challenges them to seek concrete evidences of this in Middletown, her pupils will soon find an exciting time in studying their community for proofs in architecture, in engineering, in language, and in law. The links from Rome to Middletown portrayed in a class book can become a valuable, meaningful supplementary book for succeeding classes to use.

The study of a large community store for merchandising may serve as a source of many generalizations that can be made also in the areas of human relations. The content of the shelves of a neighborhood store may serve well in teaching how interrelated and closely knit we are in the trade world and even lead a high school group into the area of trade economics from realism to principles.

Understandings must not be limited to the material products of man. The ideas and problems of people are deserving of study. Community surveys, carefully organized and preserved for the use of the entire school system, will be useful. The Curriculum Director at Lansing testifies to this fact. In the population survey, information over several years on numbers, ratio of men to women, age groups, shift of centers, average family size, nationalities, and percent of persons voting can be used to derive many sound conclusions and directive principles for Middletown's young citizens.

With over 30,000 overseas students here, more recent settlers, travelers and visitors, and returnees from overseas, the schools have rich approaches to comparison of conflicting ideas that should drive the students to intensive and careful research. Foreign student guests of the town of Osage, Iowa, left a wealth of stimulation to current affairs analyses with both the schools and community. The use of this community resource may do much to undo the vicious stress on minor differences and lead to sounder conclusions about peoples of the world.

At Wyandotte, Michigan, twenty-four selected students, backed by a complete study of their own community, interchanged visits with students from Duluth for a comparative study. Exploratory committees in several interests, headed by a student host and adult host, made the surveys. Appraisals were recorded on tape, each school doing its own for comparative purposes. Skill in analysis as well as observation was fostered and a constructive action program was suggested for the cities.

### 3. Training for action

On the premise that good citizenship is the result of both knowledge and habit, the teacher who incorporates her students as worthy participants in community affairs or institutions has made a vital contribution. At Battle Creek, undoubtedly the best garden products from the School Farm are the boys and girls who learn how to work together. The attendance of the high school students at successive council meetings where they are asked to prepare and present the evidence on an issue is indeed good training. "Government Day" in several Michigan school systems invites commendation. Whether the Safety Patrols will make future superior traffic officers in their community is not clear, but surveys show percentage of traffic violations by these boys and girls is reduced.

The student council, aware of the City Council problems, works with foresight and may find its city practices good training for later membership on the City Council. The city that invites the School Mayor and Councilmen to run the city for a day may find these youths owing a new sense of responsibility and partnership to that city. Mock caucuses and elections, patterned on the community sharing its procedures, awaken many to realism in the political picture.

### 4. Contributions through leadership and responsibility.

The joint committees of students, parents, and school officials in planning school undertakings in Hamtramck are contributions to the community's educational planning.

An Inter-Council of City Clubs desires a clear presentation of pros and cons on the most necessary projects to be supported by the Community Chest. Charts and figures from the Social Service records are prepared and presented by a committee of the senior class. Blood donors are needed. From the population survey with related age data, a class comes up with a practical goal as a basis for their donor campaign. On basis of a community opinion survey, the students arrive at a week scheduling system for city and school organizations that brings order out of chaos, and leads to finer cooperative endeavor in the entire community. The excitement of the students in planning a community *Festival of Nations* grows out of a thorough population study. The establishment of less discriminatory zoning laws comes to one town as a consequence of a fight by classmates for greater equality than their study proved existed. "Get out the vote campaign" has been conducted in many communities on evidence of the lack of use of the polls in previous elections. In one Michigan town the pupils demonstrated to voters the operation of the voting machines.

A group of elementary pupils heard the story from one of their new classmates who had had but one pencil for a year, few books, and little paper in Greece. Gifts and letters soon tied this classroom with friends abroad.

By-products of the community laboratory experiences, too, become vital factors in action. Courtesy, thoughtfulness, tact, patience, appreciation become the pattern in the interrelation of pupils and community. The attainment of status by youth serves as a big controlling and directing factor in his conduct

*(Continued on page 22)*

# More Light on the Modern Classroom

The happiness of the student and his achievement and progress are dependent to a great extent on the environmental conditions under which he works and lives. This article presents some new ideas which may be used in developing a better learning situation and should be of interest to administrators and teachers.

Scientists and educators at the University of Michigan have just completed a "classroom of tomorrow" which opens new horizons for educators, architects, and builders seeking to create the ideal environment for learning. The design of the attractive "classroom of tomorrow" was made possible by the findings of a 12-year study of the problems of schoolroom lighting conducted by scientists at the Daylighting Laboratory under the sponsorship of the Kimble Glass Company, subsidiary of Owens-Illinois Glass Company.

This new classroom provides on an average dark day nearly double the recommended minimum of daylight, and a much higher quality of daylight, in all areas of the room. It has been found possible to introduce into this classroom, decorating colors and equipment design that have been considered impractical until now. No longer is it necessary to confine close detail work to the area nearest the windows as uniform, glare-free shadowless daylight permeates all parts of the room.

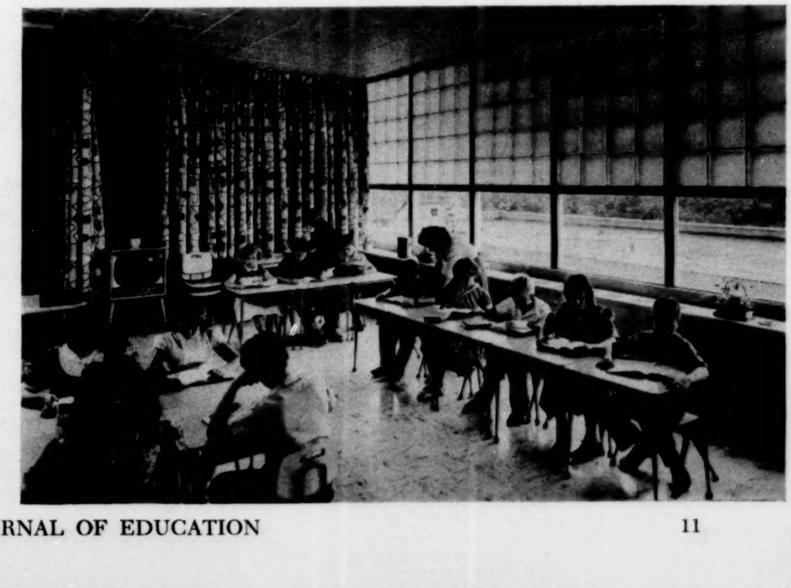
The new system of bringing daylight into the room consists of light-directing glass block and a clear-vision window strip in the exterior south wall in combination with a ribbon of glass panels, called *Toplites*, installed in the ceiling parallel to the main fenestration and five feet in from the opposite wall.

Toplite, a completely new development, is scientifically designed to select the best available daylight while rejecting unwanted heat and glare. It consists of hollow glass units set in prefabricated aluminum grids. Prisms in the glass reject a high percentage of the sun's light and heat when the sun is at high summer altitudes. In winter months, when the sun is lower, the prisms transmit more of the available daylight. All year 'round it transmits a high percentage of the cool light from the north sky.

In the past it was necessary to have long outside walls in order to provide extensive window area, but with Toplite outside walls can be shorter; thus solving a major problem of school architects and reducing one of the big costs in school building through at roof construction, clerestories, monitors and other expensive overhead daylighting systems.

Toplite provides the freedom in design, decoration, and choice of equipment which architects and administrators have long desired, and their use should result in superior building designs, improved lighting conditions, and a resulting increase in pupil achievement.

For details as to size, decorating colors, paneling, ventilation, furnishings, desks and chairs, visual aid, television facilities, etc., it is suggested that the reader write to **Owens-Illinois Glass Company, Public Relations Department, Toledo 1, Ohio.**



**The "Classroom of Tomorrow" assures freedom of movement and invites multiple group activities. Desks and chairs are portable and can be arranged in either formal or informal groups.**

# A Basic Vocabulary in Guidance

## By Benjamin J. Novak

Guidance is a branch of education which is increasingly and necessarily developing its specialized vocabulary. Since every educator, whether a specialist in guidance or not, needs to keep pace with basic terminology, it may be useful to examine some of the terms commonly encountered.

Many definitions were carefully studied, and the best, clearest, and most modern in the judgment of the writer have been selected. The classic definition, for example, of vocational guidance as the "process of assisting the individual to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in an occupation" has been replaced by the recent one of Donald E. Super.

It is surprising how widely many terms are used by writers without actually being defined, as such. Some definitions were therefore distilled out of a lengthier content. Two do not carry any specific credit because they represent so wide a sampling of sources.

The order of the forty-one terms is roughly from the broader to the more specific.

### DEFINITIONS

**1. Guidance**

Assistance made available by competent counselors to an individual of any age to help him direct his own life, develop his own point of view, make his own decisions, and carry his own burdens.

*Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow*

**2. Personnel Work**

Guidance services in the broadest sense as practised in schools, colleges, industry, government, social agencies, and elsewhere.

*after Arthur J. Jones*

**3. Vocational Guidance**

Vocational guidance is the process of helping a person to develop and accept an integrated and adequate picture of himself and of his role in the world of work, to test this concept against reality, and to convert it into reality, with satisfaction to himself and benefit to society.

*Donald E. Super*

**4. Vocational Education**

Education and training below college grade that aims primarily for work, as offered mainly by technical high schools, vocational high schools, junior colleges, and technical institutes, regardless of whether such education and training is federally aided.

*Alfred Kähler and Ernest Hamburger*

**5. Group Guidance**

Aspects of guidance which can be provided for in situations including two or more individuals who have similar interests or guidance needs that can be met advantageously in (small or larger) group situations.

*after Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow*

**6. Social Work**

A professional service to people for the purpose of assisting them as individuals or groups to attain satisfying relationships and standards of life in accordance with their particular wishes and capacities in harmony with those of the community.

*Arlien Johnson*

**7. Case Work**

Processes which develop personality through adjustments consciously effected, individual by individual, between men and their social environment.

*Mary Richmond*

Case work refers especially to the remedial or corrective procedures that follow diagnosis.

*Arthur J. Jones*

**8. Social Group Work**

A process and method through which individuals in groups in social agency settings are helped by a worker to relate themselves to other people, and to experience growth opportunities in accordance with their needs and capacities.

*Harleigh B. Trecker*

**9. Counseling**

The process of helping an individual through interviews and other individual relationships, to solve his problems and improve his planning.

*Clifford E. Erickson*

**10. Interview (in Counseling)**

The client and counselor exchange ideas through conversation, with the aim of leading to a solution of problems or at least to some change in attitude or behavior.

*after Milton L. Blum and Benjamin Balinsky*

**11. Rapport**

A personal relationship of mutual trust and respect based on a feeling of confidence and security in the other person.

*P. M. Symonds*

**12. Empathy**

The conscious identification of one individual, as far as he is able, with the feelings, outlook, and attitudes of another person. It is the ability to perceive the world as another person sees it.

*after Carl Rogers*

**13. Insight**

Increased understanding of the self and the perception of relationships between the self and its world.

*Everett Shostrom and Lawrence Brammer*

**14. Directive Counseling**

Activity in which all the facts are gathered together, all the experiences of the student are focussed on the particular problem to be solved by him, and he is given direct, personal help in solving the problem.

*Arthur J. Jones*

**15. Non-Directive (Client Centered) Counseling**

The deeply significant activities are those of the client, and the activities of the counselor are only such as will make it easier for the client to guide himself.

As the counselor makes it possible for the client to express his emotions the client gains release from his emotional tensions, and so comes to the point where he can work out a plan of conduct by himself.

*Synthesis of Carl Rogers*

**16. Permissiveness**

A nonjudgmental attitude which permits the client to direct the interview in whatever manner he chooses and to express whatever he desires, but maintains for him freedom to withhold whatever he desires as well.

*Everett Shostrom and Lawrence Brammer*

**17. Eclectic Counseling**

—Makes use of all the techniques that may be needed to solve the different problems to be faced by the client.

*Dugald S. Arbuckle*

**18. Case History**

A systematic developmental record of an individual's experience, health, education, environment, and other pertinent factors, to determine causes for his behavior.

**19. Case Study**

A synthesis and interpretation of information about a person and his relationship to his environment, collected by means of many techniques.

*Ruth Strang*

**20. Case Conference (Two Kinds)**

a.) A kind of cooperative case study by a small group of persons who systematically present, synthesize, and interpret from many angles the known facts about an individual in order to make recommendations intended to bring about a better adjustment.

*after Clifford P. Froehlich*

b.) In group guidance: Discussion of a case presenting a problem common to the group. The case may be real, but the identities are concealed.

*after R. D. Allen*

**21. Human Relations**

The attitudes, feelings, and adjustments involved in interactions among people.

*Benjamin J. Novak*

**22. Group Dynamics**

A study of forces at work when a cluster of individuals functions in face-to-face situations or when persons act as they do because of group surroundings.

*from publication of Fels Group Dynamics Center at Temple University*

**23. "Buzz" Groups**

Temporary sub-divisions, numbering usually four to six persons, of a larger group, to permit expression and interaction on a common problem.

*Benjamin J. Novak*

**24. Psychodrama**

A technique in which an emotionally disturbed individual spontaneously acts out his inner conflicts on a stage, aided by "auxiliary egos," a director, and sometimes by a participating audience. The psychodrama should be supervised by a psychiatrist.

*after Ruth Strang*

**25. Sociodrama**

Intensive, vivid role-playing or spontaneous living through of experiences that are of common concern to members of a group.

*after Helen Jennings*

**26. Sociometry (Sociometric Test)**

Techniques and procedures which attempt to ascertain natural groupings and patterns of association among members of a group.

*Ruth Strang*

**27. Sociogram**

A diagram showing association patterns among members of a group, based upon individual choices of companions for a particular situation.

*after Helen Jennings*

**28. Isolate**

An individual in a group who on a sociogram is shown to be unchosen as a companion by anyone in a group, and who usually chooses no one himself.

*Benjamin J. Novak*

**29. Disability**

A condition of impairment, physical or mental, having an objective aspect that can usually be described by a physician.

*Kenneth W. Hamilton*

**30. Handicap**

The cumulative result of the obstacles which disability interposes between the individual and his maximum functional level. It is an individual thing.

*Kenneth W. Hamilton*

**31. Exceptional Child**

Any child deviating from the average (above or below) in his emotional, social, mental, or physical aspects of personality, to the extent that he needs special educational services.

*after Roy Willey and others*

**32. Physical Therapy (Physiotherapy)**

Treatment of disability, injury, and disease by non-medical means, involving the use of massage, exercise, heat, light, water, and electricity.

*Dictionary of Education, Carter Good, editor*

**33. Occupational Therapy**

A form of remedial treatment consisting of various types of activities, mental or physical, which either contribute to or hasten recovery.

*Erle F. Young*

**34. Delinquent**

Any child whose conduct deviates sufficiently from social usage to warrant his being considered a menace to himself, to his future life, and to society itself.

*James H. Ashbaugh*

**35. Psychosomatics**

The correlation of psychological phenomena, normal, abnormal, or pathological, with somatic or bodily conditions and variations.

*James Drever*

**36. Ego**

That part of the personality, involving both conscious and unconscious processes, which has as its chief function perceiving reality and mediating between the primitive drives of the individual (namely the id) and the physical and social pressures of the environment.

*Dictionary of Education, Carter Good, editor*

**37. Ambivalence**

Strong antagonistic emotions, as love and hate, directed toward the same individual.

*Lawrence F. Shaffer*

**38. Psychotherapy**

Measures that are associated with the amelioration or removal of abnormal constituents of mind.

*Hinsie and Shatzky*

**39. Projective Techniques**

Devices intended to elicit data on the individual's inner feelings and values. The devices are "unstructured," i.e., do not require a choice of prescribed answers, but are designed to evoke individuality. (Instruments include: Rorschach Test, Thematic Apperception Test, incomplete sentence, play technique, unfinished stories, finger painting, cloud pictures, drama, stories.)

**40. Catharsis**

"Purging" or freeing of repressed emotions and revealing attitudes by means of unhampered talk, play, or other expression.

**41. Play Technique**

A projective technique used chiefly with children, that utilizes toys, plastic materials, etc., with which the subject can "act out" aggressions, fears, and other emotions that are ordinarily less readily expressed at the verbal level. (It is used for the diagnosis and therapy of behavior and personality maladjustments.)

*Dictionary of Education, Carter Good, editor*

# A Controlled Vocabulary?

**By Faye M. Clark and Mary M. Monahan**

Much of the primary grade reading is taught through basal reading systems. Many people feel that a child gains greater security by following a single system rather than changing from one to another. A controlled vocabulary is often considered the best way to guarantee success for the child learning to read.

As studies have indicated that the vocabularies vary from reading system to reading system, and as children may transfer from one school to another within a community or even from one community to another community, it seemed advisable to measure the achievement of children on a vocabulary of many systems even though they had been taught a single one. Alphabetized lists[1] of each of four basal series from preprimer through the first reader were built. The size of the vocabularies through the primers ranged from the shortest of one hundred and forty-six words to the longest of one hundred and seventy-eight words. There were sixty-seven words common to the four series studied.

Four stories were written including all of the words in the four series. An effort was made to keep the content interesting, and to have as few repetitions as possible so that unnecessary time would not be consumed in testing the vocabulary. Variants as *ee* and *ing* were considered new words.

As soon as a child completed the preprimer, he read orally the story which had been written as an inventory of that level, including the words of three systems in addition to the one he had been taught. As he finished the primer of his basal reader, a similar procedure was followed, testing his ability to read a story of the composite vocabulary of four systems. The examiner kept a record of the story on a mimeographed copy. If a child hesitated five seconds, the word was supplied by the examiner. An error was ignored unless correction was necessary for the continuity of the story. An error was counted only once, when it was first encountered in the story. The time needed for the preprimer test ranged from twelve to fifteen minutes, and for the primer level from twenty to twenty-five minutes per child.

The chronological ages of the one hundred and ten children from several communities of varied size, locale, and social economic backgrounds, ranged from five years, eleven months to seven years, eleven months with a median of six years, six months. The mental ages ranged from five years, seven months to ten years, four months with a median of seven years, six months.

An analysis of the test findings showed that most children who had completed the preprimers of a system knew that vocabulary well, but most of them were not able to read words from other reading systems. Only fourteen of the one hundred and ten children knew twenty or more words that had not been included in the basal system with which they had worked. There was a marked difference in this finding at the primer level. The primer words that had been taught were also well known, nineteen of the children having a perfect score on the test at this level, and the poorest one able to read one hundred and thirty-two of the words. Thirty-two of the children tested read one hundred words that had not been previously taught in the basal system with which they had worked. Apparently the skills they had acquired as the use of picture and context clues, and beginning and final consonants helped in acquiring a sight vocabulary beyond that which he has been taught, but at the primer level and beyond he should have little difficulty in transferring from one system to another as long as the number of new words presented at a time is controlled.

A study of the errors of individual words showed *baby, where, want, ball, something, train, penny, dinner, fast* and *chair* presented the most difficulty at the preprimer level, and *ride, well, but, talk, conductor, gobble, race, parade* and *Christmas* were the ten words of the primer vocabulary most often missed.

Another study[2] of one hundred and seven children at the second reading level has shown that these children were highly successful in applying word recognition skills to new vocabulary. Two hundred and thirty untaught words were read by all but twenty-five of the children studied.

It would seem that it is possible to select materials because of the interest of the group or because of the pertinence of such materials to a given subject rather than staying close to any basal system beyond the preprimer level.

**FOOTNOTES**

[1] Clark, Faye M., and Monahan, Mary M., *An Analysis of Oral Reading Achievement in Relation to a Basal Text,* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boston University, 1954.

[2] Daly, Mary A., and McFarland, Marion L., *An Analysis of Oral Reading Achievement in Grade Two in Relation to a Basal Text,* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boston University, 1953.

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# Teachers! Two Kinds of Division

### By Edwin H. Hill

Teach two kinds of division problems? "It's difficult enough to teach division without complicating it by insistence upon teaching two kinds." This might well be the immediate reaction of many elementary school teachers to this request.

Realistically, teachers are faced with the task of teaching two kinds of division—measurement division and partition division. This may be one reason why learning of division is considered to be the most difficult of the four fundamental processes for many pupils.[1] Authors of arithmetic textbooks for children devote much space to presenting and developing the measurement and partition division concept.[2] Both types of division are also found in situations outside of school. For these reasons, elementary school teachers should be able to identify and teach both types of division.

#### What, Exactly, Are the Two Kinds of Division?

"Bill has 25 cents and wishes to buy as many 5 cent balloons as he can. How many is he able to buy?" This is an example of a measurement division problem. In measurement problems, the task is to find the number of parts or measures contained in the total.[3] In the above example, the measure is cents. A child could solve this problem by *taking 5 cents at a time away* from the total amount until all of the money had been used. By counting the number of times he has *taken out* the measure (5 cents), he will have found the solution to the problem. The child could also think, "How many 5's equal 25?" This could be written and solved in a conventional manner with labels attached as follows:

$$\begin{array}{rl} & \text{5 balloons} \\ \text{5 cents} & \overline{)\ \text{25 cents}} \\ & \ \ \ \text{25} \\ & \ \ \ \overline{\ \ 0\ \ } \end{array}$$

The above presentation violates certain arithmetical principles but is used to clarify the measurement idea of division. In a measurement problem the *divisor* and *dividend* are of the *same* measure. The quotient tells the number of groups (of the size of the divisor, 5 cents) contained in the dividend.

The example used in the foregoing discussion may be restated to represent an example of a partition problem. The problem would then read, "Bill had 25 cents and bought 5 balloons. If he paid the same amount for each balloon, how much did each balloon cost?" To solve this problem, a child could *place* one *cent at a time in 5 stacks* until he had exhausted his supply of money. Or, he might think, "I had 25 cents, and I got 5 balloons for my money. Each balloon will cost 1/5 of 25 cents (25/5), which I can find by dividing 25 by 5." This, too, could be written in conventional form and solved with labels attached as follows; again recognizing that certain liberties are taken:

$$\begin{array}{rl} & \text{5 cents} \\ \text{5 balloons} & \overline{)\ \text{25 cents}} \\ & \ \ \ \text{25} \\ & \ \ \ \overline{\ \ 0\ \ } \end{array}$$

Now it is possible to distinguish more easily between measurement and partition division. In a partition problem, the *divisor* and *dividend* are of unlike measures while the dividend and quotient are of the same measure. The divisor of a partition problem indicates the *number of groups* or parts into which the total has been divided and as Spitzer[4] suggests ". . . the task is to find the size of one part."

Buckingham illustrates clearly the difference between partition and measurement type division problems by the use of the following diagram:

"If 1 bag holds 9 apples, 4 bags will hold 36 apples"

| 1 bag | 9 apples |
|---|---|
| 4 bags | 36 apples |

That is, B

| 1 | Unit Group |
|---|---|
| Number (times) | Whole Group |

Multiplication leads to the completion of the diagram if the "whole group" is missing. Measurement division leads to its completion if the "times" number is missing. The multiplication question is "If 1 bag holds 9 apples, how many apples will 4 bags hold?" The measurement division question is "If 1 bag holds 9 apples, how many bags will it take to hold 36 apples?"

> This, in regard to the thought process involved, division is of two kinds: measurement, if you are to find the number of equal groups, knowing the size of each of them; partition, if you are to find the size of the equal groups, knowing how many groups there are.[5]

It is not to be inferred from this discussion of the question "What, exactly, are the two kinds of division?" that children are to be taught formally the terms "partition and measurement." The intent is to help teachers to identify the two types of division so that they may provide experiences for children to aid them in understanding the division process better.

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[1] Brueckner, Leo J., and Grossnickle, Foster E., *How To Make Arithmetic Meaningful*. Chicago: John C. Winston Co., 1947, p. 127.

[2] Southerland, Mary E., *One Step Problem Patterns, Contributions to Education, No. 925*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, p. 144.

[3] Spitzer, Herbert F., *The Teaching of Arithmetic*. New York: Ginn and Company, 1948, p. 189.

### What Experiences Will Help Children to Understand The Division Process?

The general method of instruction used by a teacher will determine to a great degree the types of number experiences children will have at any grade level. The following suggested experiences are designed to help children understand the division process. Many of the experiences could be adapted to the needs of most children in elementary school classes.

Provide children with opportunities to solve division situations by known methods before the proper algorism is introduced.[6] This problem may be used for an illustration, "Jane had 10 sheets of paper in all. To *how* many children could she give 2 sheets of paper?"

**a. Dramatization.** Have the required number of sheets of paper available and ask some child to give 2 sheets of paper to as many children in the class as possible. Count the number of children having 2 sheets each, and this number will be the answer to the question asked in the problem.

**b. Serial subtraction.** Children will have had experiences in counting and subtracting before being introduced to division. Starting with 10 sheets of paper, take away 2 sheets at a time until the supply is exhausted. Count the number of times that 2 was taken away. This is the answer to the question asked in the problem.

**c. Grouping idea.** From the statement of the problem, develop the idea of "How many groups of 2 will equal 10?" A child may then manipulate the sheets of paper while the teacher records on the chalkboard what the child says or does; for example,

1 group of 2 equals 2
2 groups of 2 equal 4
3 groups of 2 equal 6
4 groups of 2 equal 8
5 groups of 2 equal 10

Then ask the child again, "How many groups of 2's equal 10?" The answer, 5, is the answer to the question asked in the problem.

**d. Simplified drawing.** Have children make simple drawings showing what the problem states. Stick figures representing children are easily drawn as well as small rectangles to indicate pieces of paper. After the conditions of the problem are drawn, counting the number of children represented with 2 sheets of paper each will give the answer to the question asked.

At some point *after* children have had experiences in solving division situations by known means, the proper algorism should be introduced.

For experiences to develop the partition idea of division, the following example will be used. "Jane had 10 sheets of paper in all. If 2 children shared the paper equally, how many sheets would each child receive?"

**a. Dramatization.** Give one child 10 sheets of paper which he is to share with another child. Have him give one sheet to another child and then keep one himself; give one and keep one, until the 10 sheets have been evenly distributed. Counting the number of sheets in one child's share will give the answer to the question asked in the problem.

**b. Grouping idea.** From the statement of the problem, develop the concept that each child will receive ½ of the 10 sheets. Then take the 10 sheets and arrange them into 2 groups of equal size. Have several children do this. Count the number of sheets of paper in one group and you have found the answer to the question asked in the written problem.

**c. Simplified drawing.** This would seem to be somewhat more difficult for children to do with understanding. Draw stick figures representing two children; as 10 sheets of paper are to be shared equally between the two, draw a rectangle representing a sheet of paper under each child, counting each time a rectangle is drawn until 10 has been reached. Count the number of sheets of paper one child has been given. This is the answer to the question asked in the problem.

**d. Serial subtraction.** From situations described in partition problems, it is not possible to develop logically the answer to the question asked by means of serial subtraction.

These few suggestions do not exhaust the wide variety of experiences that children should have to develop an understanding of the division process. After a teacher has learned to identify partition and measurement problems, the variety of experiences she provides for children is limited only by her ingenuity and the conditions imposed by the written problem.

### Which Type of Division Problem Should Be Taught First?

There is little research evidence to support strong claims for introducing the division process by either measurement or partition situations. Stokes[7] makes this statement:

> Distribution, when the size of the part is desired [partition concept], is the first step toward what is usually termed the division process. It seems to be the easiest step, and we should teach it first.

Spitzer[8] suggests that the division process be introduced by means of a measurement situation.

An analysis of eleven arithmetic textbook series was made by the writer[9] to discover which type of division situation was used in the initial presentation of the division process at each grade level from third

(Continued on next page)

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[4] Spitzer, op. cit., p. 189.

[5] Buckingham, Burdett R., *Elementary Arithmetic: Its Meaning and Practice.* New York: Ginn and Company, 1947, pp. 75-76.

[6] Spitzer, Herbert F., and Dunfee, Maxine, "Learning the Harder Multiplication and Division Facts in a Program Emphasizing Understanding," *Mathematics Teacher,* 34:364, August, 1941.

through sixth. No series used the same method of presentation at all grade levels. Measurement type situations were used in ten of the eleven series at third grade level. At fourth grade level, 5 series introduced the process by means of partition problems; one series used measurement problems, and in the other series a combination of partition and measurement problems or drill exercises were used. At the fifth and sixth grade levels, a simultaneous presentation of partition and measurement problems appeared most frequently.

While an analysis of types of problems used in initial lessons in division does not indicate desirability or ease of teaching or learning, it does point out the type of problem encountered first in most textbooks. On this basis, the measurement type problems would be taught first.

There is some evidence indicating that children in grades three through six prefer to solve measurement rather than partition type problems.[10] From a teacher's viewpoint, it seems prudent to use problem situations that children are known to prefer during initial presentation of the division process for motivation.

### Why Teach Both Types of Division Problems?

Partition and measurement division problems are found in every arithmetic textbook written for children in grades three through six. As textbooks frequently determine what content will be taught, it becomes apparent that teachers should be able to identify and teach both concepts of division. Children need experiences with both types of division problems to enable them to solve certain quantitative situations encountered both in and out of school.

A child who saves a set amount each week towards the purchasing price of a desired object, can tell how many weeks he will have to save by dividing in the measurement sense. When a boy and his friends divide, or share, their pooled winnings after marble season is finished, they use the process known as partition division.

It is recommended that ample time be given in arithmetic periods to develop adequately both measurement and partition concepts in division.

Teach two kinds of division problems? A teacher cannot do less and claim to be teaching the division process with understanding.

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[7] Stokes, C. Newton, *Teaching the Meanings of Arithmetic.* New York: D. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951, p. 132.

[8] Spitzer, op. cit., p. 189.

[9] Hill, Edwin H., *A Study of Preferences and Performance of Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grade Children on Two Types of Division Problems.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, State University of Iowa, 1952.

[10] Hill, op. cit., p. 91.

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### *Nursery Education . . .*

*(Continued from page 4)*

nursery education. (Both the National Association for Nursery Education and the Association for Childhood Education International have excellent leaflet materials which are helpful for both parents and others.)

Help parents to recognize the importance of evaluating a school before registering their child, and to learn how to evaluate a school and its program.

Encourage the development of training programs in local colleges and/or through locally sponsored workshops.

Become leaders and instigators in building a feeling of community responsibility for nursery education with the cooperation of such groups as public schools, parents, pediatricians, social agencies, civic groups, and organizations such as ACEI, NANE, and AAUW meeting and working together. If the atmosphere in such groups is not threatening, the nursery schools and day care centers can become a working part from the very beginning. Take advantage of the groups which are anxious for help and are trying to raise their own standards and want to be understood.

Finally, using these same groups on both local and state levels, begin to work for voluntary acceptance of minimum standards. Then, if necessary, push for licensing or certification which will cover housing, program, and staff.

Through such a dynamic community program, we can hope to achieve that goal *Our Concern: Every Child.* Young children and their first school experiences *are* our concern and we must now accept them as our responsibility.

# A French Club At Work

## By Helen Aldridge

With the aim of creating a French Club which would provide learning experiences and include all French students in the school, this plan has been evolved and is working effectively with about 115 members.

Every French student is automatically a member of the Club and his name is printed on a large graph on our bulletin board. Many of our students are unable to attend meetings after school because of work or transportation problems, so they may elect to join or not to join one of the committees which hold meetings. Each committee is made up of volunteers and is large enough to function in spite of a few necessary absences at the meetings. Committees have been formed to be concerned with Programs, Special Occasions, Finances, Public Relations, Room Decoration, Awards and Credits, and European Relations.

Members joining committees receive a point after their names on the credit graph. Each meeting attended earns another point. Committee chairmanship, decided by vote within the committee, is worth another point.

Members unable to belong to committees or uninterested in them may earn credits by projects turned in. Some write reports on varied subjects of interest to them but all showing a relationship to French. Many make drawings and montages, mural maps, or exhibits of folders, clippings, or souvenirs. A boy sewed a French flag for the room, a girl made a picture map of Paris of large proportions. One Club session was devoted to playing French records—everything from Rise Stevens to Eartha Kitt—with explanations and notes by the members bringing them in.

Le Cercle Francais has sponsored two major projects this semester. By making arrangements with a cooperative bakery, they held a chocolate eclair sale in the school patio. Their publicity was a well-planned mixture of French and English, their salesgirls wore frilly white aprons of their own making, and committees on delivery, sales, and cleaning up functioned smoothly on their own initiative. They surpassed their goal of buying a set of thirty single books and were able to purchase thirty bound copies of a series of five books. These are novels in elementary French graduating to fairly difficult reading. The Club presented them to the school and they can be used in all the French classes.

The week before Christmas vacation, the Club gave a "The Musicale" to which they invited their parents, their teachers, and their friends. The "Musicale" part was their rendition of several Christmas songs in French. The music was student-conducted, accompanied, and announced. The miniature French pastry refreshments were student-planned and served. Two tables were set up to show French Club work and various realia collections made by the students. The clean-up committee worked enthusiastically and thoroughly.

Many credit points were earned through these two projects and I believe that other values were gained through them that will outlast the points by some years.

At the end of the school year, the Committee on Awards will select the student or students with the greatest number of points and a worthwhile prize (perhaps a French-English dictionary or something the committee feels appropriate) will be awarded. Honors earned this way do not affect the student's grade except insofar as they stimulate his interest in the language and consequently lead to improved scholarship. This is happening, however, and I believe that our "honored" members will gather more of the fruits of scholarship from the expansion of their activities.

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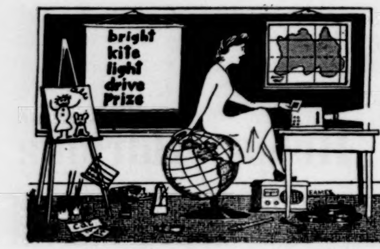

## MATERIALS

# Hints for Summer

What will those children in your room do this Summer? Will vacation be fun for two weeks, then a problem for parents who hear "What can I do today?" Many communities meet this need with the help of vacation schools. They are sometimes held in churches. Occasionally mothers will set up a younger-child group and share the responsibility of entertaining and teaching. And once in a while the whole town or city plans a different kind of school which lasts for half the Summer or longer. What goes on in these vacation schools? Learning and fun. But let's get you involved in a summer school. First, this summer "school" is NOT remedial reading and arithmetic. Many children may need them, but that is not your problem. Can you start children off on a profitable summer? Can you suggest projects that will last them for ten weeks—many maybe for ten years—as hobbies?

The outdoors is the classroom. It's free. It is the place where children live whenever they can. Let's look at some of the things children can do. Here's where to get ideas:

Field Book of Nature Activities, by William Hillcourt. This book is illustrated by Francis J. Rigney—who is one of America's outstanding nature-craft artists. You can get it at G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, or at your own bookstore. It has HUNDREDS of things like this in it: Make an ant house without dirt. Use red cellophane over the glass. The ants think it is dark. They go right on working and you can watch them.

Catch a snake. Clip a few scales in a definite pattern so you can identify him again. Do this all summer. Learn where your local snakes go and what they do. (Note to teachers: the book tells about poisonous snakes. There are very few of them.)

Make a waterscope. See life beneath the surface of a pond. Glass in the bottom of a wood pail, or in a galvanized pail that the tinsmith cuts a hole in the bottom of. Glass, of course, bedded in the modern waterproof glazing compound. Use a waterproof flashlight in connection with it. See page 218 on how to make one of these in 90 seconds.

Plaster casts of fishes, footprints, fallen leaves. Make a negative mould, then cast a positive. Paint with oil or poster paints. More skill needed to make casts of mushrooms, but what a product!

Now for some other books.

Two Little Savages, Ernest Thompson Seton. Pick up a copy in a second-hand bookshop—or every children's public library has one. Two boys play Indians. No models, but a real teepee, good bows and arrows, authentic Indian games. Skinning and mounting an owl. Feeding animals on the Wakan rock, sketching their tracks in a sandy path.

Handbook of Nature Study by Anna Comstock. THE nature study book, long hard to get, now happily reprinted and available in most libraries. Hundreds of short lessons about the real world of the youngsters. A lot of information, needs some help in planning activities to bring this to life.

For titles of activities, look at the One Thousand Science Fair Projects, from Science Clubs of America, Science Service, Washington, D. C., 25 cents.

Finally, some specific activities for your thoughtful consideration. Why thoughtful? Because some do not apply to your locality! Find the ones that your children want to do. They'll bring back the results in the Fall.

Make a map of all the poison ivy areas in your town. Talk to the road supervisor or the park superintendent about destroying the ivy.

Find trees and plants in your town that are scarce. Get permission to make labels from aluminum foil and india ink to put on them. Take others to see them after you have learned all you can about them.

Visit the water-supply station and ask the questions you prepared before school closed. Make a written report to bring back in the Fall.

Collect and press the leaves of the trees you pass as you go from home to school. Make a chart showing where the trees are.

Get samples of soil from every "corner" of your city or town. Label them, tell what plants are growing in each. Now one more item. Write to Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, and ask about the Cornell Rural School Leaflets. These will supply you year-round with projects in the nature and physical science field. A tiny price brings it four times a year.

***Public Education and the Future of America,*** a 98-page offering of The Educational Policies Commission, is as clear and readable a statement of where you and I stand, as teachers in America, as can be found.

The history of the dream of equal educational opportunity is unrolled briefly but with clarity. The service given to the people of America by the public schools is summed astonishingly. The future role of the school and the teacher in a physically crowded nation is shown, with its opportunities for influencing economic affairs and the relationships with other countries.

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# NEW BOOKS

## A Recent Book Devoted to Delinquency

There are few communities in America today that are not disturbed by the rising tide of juvenile crime as blazoned forth in the daily press. Delinquency prevention and control have become everyone's business, but the multiplicity of proposed panaceas suggests the urgent need for a calm and constructive approach to this national problem. Professor Kvaraceus's book (1) *The Community and the Delinquent: Cooperative Approaches to Preventing and Controlling Delinquency,* comes therefore at an opportune time and as a sort of antidote to the confused array of hastily-arrived-at conclusions.

The author reviews in some detail a number of modern techniques now available to communities interested in long-range plans for the better handling of a social problem that mass media have vividly brought to the attention of more people than ever before. His suggestions are solidly anchored in respectable research, underlining the point that much of what we have learned is not put to use. Although the problems each community faces are unique, professional workers can benefit by a study of what has proved to be useful elsewhere. The author is no alarmist and does not dwell on the "shame of America" or bemoan the "losing fight against delinquency" or highlight extreme examples of youthful depravity. The viewpoint is essentially practical. From the title, one might have expected more attention to interpretations of social instability or the lack of community norms in delinquency areas, but the emphasis is not so much on sociological theories of how delinquent communities or delinquent sub-cultures got that way, as it is on what can be done about it. The orientation is psychological rather than sociological.

Perspective is maintained by an insistence on seeing each delinquent as a unique individual who is usually seeking escape from some form of personal frustration. Moreover, the delinquent is not a "special breed," operating under totally different psychological laws. His behavior, like that of any child, is "a dynamic and continuous interaction of the child personality with the complex array of external forces in home and community," always to be considered as "adjustive behavior from the point of view of the child." These statements may seem all too obvious to the student of the subject but, in the reviewer's opinion, they can stand re-emphasis, for the term "the delinquent child" has become reified, as though once a child has violated a state or federal law or even a local ordinance, he is to be treated as though he "has" suddenly acquired a "disease" which calls for some kind of specific "treatment," while children who are not delinquent have somehow escaped this "disease" and need no special attention. Paradoxically, a book dealing with delinquency almost inevitably creates the impression in the mind of the reader that social deviants are a sort of sub-species of the human animal. It cannot therefore be repeated too often, as the author wisely points out, that community programs of child health and welfare should *not* "favor only the overt and aggressive delinquent and overlook the maladjusted but non-aggressive or non-threatening child."

Professor Kvaraceus, who devised a "proneness scale and check list" for spotting "delinquency prone" children early in their careers, naturally devotes considerable space to the subject of identification and prediction, describing and contrasting a number of different predictive devices that are now available. His presentation raises a question in the reviewer's mind as to whether or not there has been an overemphasis on prediction through tests and scales. Most schoolteachers can "spot" the potential troublemaker without the aid of tests, for he usually exhibits nonconforming behavior in the classroom before he becomes a serious menace to the community. It is true that maladjustment in school is certainly not always indicative of future trouble in the community, but should we not be just as concerned with the child who expresses his unhappiness and frustrations in other than anti-social conduct? The overly quiet and withdrawn child also, as the famous study of E. K. Wickman showed many years ago, is equally in need of help and guidance. With the current emphasis on test of "delinquency-proneness" are we not apt to overlook the maladjusted but non-aggressive child that Professor Kvaraceus was referring to? Nevertheless, if such tests or scales had a higher validity than Professor Kvaraceus himself can claim for them, and if we could be assured that they would be administered by teachers with utmost discretion so as not to stigmatize the first and second-grade child or set him apart as a person to be continually watched, a better case might be made out for their use.

Its coverage is so comprehensive, this book should be useful as a text for students and teachers. But it differs significantly from the usual text, devoting little space to traditional expositions of "causes," such as heredity, feeblemindedness, poverty and so on. On the troublesome problem of "cause" the author takes an empirical view. A tabulation derived from five independent research studies provides the reader with a useful guide as to how delinquents and nondelinquents differ (in group percentages) in respect to specific personal or social factors. No single factor and no type, of course, emerges as crucial from this original table and the author is careful not to overgeneralize from these data. Nevertheless, in view of the fairly general agreement among diverse research studies upon which the table is based, some helpful clues can be found that should prove useful in planning group programs. There is a peculiar paradox in the assertion that the behavior of each delinquent results from a unique pattern of dynamic factors, and the assertion that delinquents in groups differ significantly from non-delinquents in groups in respect to factors x, y and z. To meet this paradox, which is more apparent than real, he shows how community programs can be planned with one eye on the group differences but how an individual delinquent can be helped only by the use of case study techniques. An entire chapter is devoted to the case study approach, describing the basic data needed to locate the underlying causative factors in the case in hand, and outlining some of the principles needed to interpret and implement it.

Community planning naturally follows identification and study of the individual delinquent. The author provides a scale to appraise a community's progress in delinquency prevention and control—a scale adapted from his previous work, "Juvenile Delinquency and the School" (World Book Company, N. Y., 1945). The book is replete with helpful references and descriptive material relating to many community and school programs that have stood the test of experience in various parts of the country. This reviewer fails to find a report of the extensive work of the New York City Youth Board (probably the largest publicly financed delinquency unit in any city of the U. S.) which established "referral units" in public schools in high delinquency areas and developed elaborate methods for dealing with youthful gangs and for reaching the so-called "unreached" boys who were not attracted by established community agencies.

"Few agencies in the community are in a more strategic position to affect the behavior of all children and youth in a positive direction than are the schools." For this reason, and perhaps because the author is a professional educator with long experience with school problems, the longest chapter depicts the central role of the schools in a well-planned community program. Schools should not only be able to detect early signs of delinquency but should have the know-how in the matter of proper referral to the appropriate community resource, if adequate facilities are not available in the school system itself. On the other hand, he warns, schools that do not provide a healthy and emotionally satisfying experience in their educational programs actually promote rather than reduce delinquent trends. Here are many practical suggestions for teachers and school administrators.

In its wide and thoroughly up-to-date coverage of the topic, the book also describes the work of the clinic, the courts, the police and the juvenile training schools, and discusses the influence of the church and family life on the growing child. Because of its direct and informal style and its commonsense approach, supported by many research findings, this book should prove to be a source of information and inspiration to those who are seriously concerned with doing something about the current increase in delinquent behavior.

*Edwin Powers*
*United Prison Association*
*of Massachusetts*

(1) *The Community and the Delinquent: Co-operative Approaches to Preventing and Controlling Delinquency.* William C. Kvaraceus. New York: World Book Company, 1954.

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### *Social Studies Utilize the Community*

*(Continued from page 10)*

in the home area that knows him. Worthiness is fostered by the town that recognizes the ability of its young leaders as good demonstrators of democratic idealism. A town raises funds to send a community ambassador abroad for a summer. Upon his return all service and special clubs learn much from his talks. Ten homes are opened the following summer to ten foreign students for one month. Again the host students and the guests feel equally compensated through the interchange of ideas. When this interaction program takes place, there need be no doubt that, though the community is a locality, the school has found a worldwide laboratory. All these cooperative experiments of town and school create dynamic power called responsible citizenship.

Schools have long expected science to be taught with the aid of laboratory facilities. Today the schools see the community as the realistic laboratory to reach the goal of social studies teaching, namely an improvement in social relations by:

1. Furnishing realia for observation and for information.
2. Stimulating the search for explanations, for comparisons and contrasts, for cause and effect,—all of which gives meaning and understanding.
3. Challenging pupils to participate in affairs for the purpose of training.
4. Developing a desire to bear responsibility as a youthful participant possessing understanding, skills, and a realization that he is a citizen who has a functional place in making the society in which he lives.

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### OUR NUMBER SYSTEM

**A Two-Minute Quiz Program**

1. What is a number symbol?

   **Ans.** A number symbol such as *four* or 4 indicates the size of a collection of like things.

2. What does it mean to count?

   **Ans.** Counting is establishing a one-to-one correspondence between a set of objects in a collection and an accepted set of number names or symbols. To count the number of dots in the group . . . . . . look at the dots, one after another, saying "one, two, three, four, five, six." The last number name tells the size of the group.

3. How many number words do we have?

   **Ans.** There is no limit.

4. How many number symbols such as 1, 2, 3, etc. do we have?

   **Ans.** Only ten: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 0.

5. Is zero a number?

   **Ans.** Yes, just as two or seven is a number.

6. Using no more than ten symbols, how can we indicate the size of a group larger than ten?

   **Ans.** By means of the idea of *base* and *place value.*

7. Just what does *base* mean?

   **Ans.** Base means *starting over again.* Thus: one, two, — — — — eight, nine, *base,* base and one, base and two, — — — — base and nine, two base, two base and one, etc.

8. Then our number system is a *tens* system?

   **Ans.** Yes, instead of calling the next number after nine *base,* we call it *ten.*

9. How does the idea of place value come in?

   **Ans.** A number such as twenty-four means 2 bases and four ones or 2 tens and four ones, and is written 24. In 24 the 2 is in tens place, and the 4 is in ones place. In 42 the 4 is in tens place and 2 is in ones place. The zero in 203 shows the number of tens in tens place.

10. Should numbers such as 29, 40, 53, etc. be called two-place numbers or two-digit numbers?

    **Ans.** Both names are correct and both should be used.

11. Should a counting chart be arranged as in Chart I or in Chart II?

Chart I

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |

Chart II

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |

    **Ans.** Counting starts with one; a counting chart should start with 1. We make arithmetic learning unnecessarily difficult for pupils by showing Chart II in connection with counting. Chart II relates to measurement, not to counting.

12. Should a hundreds chart be structured as in Chart I or Chart II?

    **Ans.** A hundred chart should show ten-ness. A hundred is ten-tens. Obviously, a hundred chart should be arranged as in Chart I above, thus becoming a visual representation of 100 as ten 10's.

13. Can we operate with zero, just as we operate with other numbers?

    **Ans.** Zero obeys all the rules of operation, except that it cannot be used as a divisor.

14. Is it desirable to teach zero as a place-holder?

    **Ans.** Zero is no more or less a place-holder than is any other digit in a multi-digit number.

15. Is it a serious mathematical error to teach that our number system is based upon nine rather than ten digits?

    **Ans.** Yes, without any doubt. Mathematicians would call such teaching gravely erroneous.

***Dr. John R. Clark***
***New Hope, Pennsylvania***

### A STAR THEATER

Take the lid off an oats box and put on a new cover of dark heavy paper, either black or purple. Prick the outline of a constellation in the top with a pin or small nail.

Cut a hole in the other end of the box and insert a flashlight.

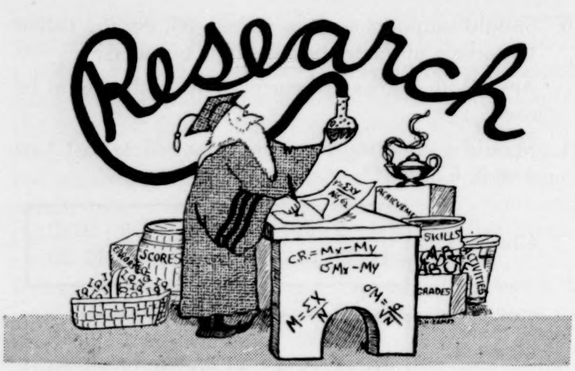
Project the outline of the constellation onto a screen, or the ceiling.

Did you know that grayed colors look better than raw colors together?

To gray a color add some of its opposite color.

To make a lighter tint of a color add white.

Just a little blue paint stirred into the orange and a little orange in the blue makes them go well together.



# Needed Research

Instead of devoting this column to a review of the research in a particular area of educational practice as we have been doing, we are presenting a listing of suggestions for needed research in several areas. It is important to look not only at the research that has been done and its significance for education, but also to the research that needs doing, to the areas of ignorance or insufficient information, in order that we may have a balanced view of the present status of education as science.

The suggestions offered are not intended to exhaust the needs of a single area, nor are all areas covered. Space limitations prevent this. However our plans are to devote the last issue of each year to such a review of needed research and to present a variety of suggestions.

*Physical Education*

1. At what age levels should the basic skills be introduced for most effective learning?
2. The effects of varying durations, frequencies and intensities of practice sessions in the learning of motor skills.
3. The progressions of activities which will produce the most effective learning and result in improved achievement levels.
4. What are the goals and levels of aspirations set by children of various age levels in terms of the skills to be learned?
5. Children's apprehensions and fears which may be associated with the learning of particular motor activities.
6. Analysis of underlying causes of motor retardations in normal children.
7. Control studies of conditions under which most rapid motor learning can be attained.
8. The effects of heavy and light physical activity upon the physiological and psychological well-being of the child.
9. Studies centered around the special aptitudes, interests and abilities of children as these pertain to physical education activities.
10. Analyses of psychological and emotional factors which influence the physical performance of children.
11. The effects of such variables as maturity, physique and strength upon motor performance.
12. Longitudinal studies of such physical growth variables as bone tissue, fat and muscle tissue as these factors may be related to the development of strength and physical abilities of young children.

*Health Education*

1. The educational opportunities and effectiveness of instruction in nutrition and health at the elementary school level through the school lunch program.
2. Contribution of school lunch program to social growth of elementary school child.

*Language Arts*

1. Which of the several methods and devices for vocabulary building are most effective, and under what circumstances and with whom?
2. Investigation of planned program of sentence study on improvement of punctuation skills and carry-over into writing in subjects other than English or Language Arts.
3. Investigation of syllabification ability, speed of word pronunciation, auditory discrimination including both identification and reproduction of blends and vowel sounds, and their relationship to spelling and knowledge of word meanings.
4. Development of a scale for evaluating manuscript writing at adult level.
5. Investigation of effects of television on reading readiness.
6. Which word recognition techniques are most useful for children of lower mental ability?
7. In what way can phonics be made more functional in reading, e.g., facilitate rather than impede the necessary discriminations.

*Remedial Reading*

1. Determination of the potential of an individual for profit from intensive training intended to improve such skills as rate. Most programs stressing rate gains operate under the assumption that most persons can and should read faster. The obtained results usually show that only a bare majority evidence improvement regardless of the training technique employed. More accurate evaluation of the potential for gain is obviously needed in pre-training testing.
2. More widespread investigation and dissemination of information regarding the values and limitations of orthopedics or visual training in a remedial program is desirable. Most workers in this field pay little or no attention to the possibility of improving reading performances by training visual skills and coordinations.
3. The values of training in auditory and visual discrimination, such as used in readiness pro-

grams, for many retarded readers is as yet relatively unexplored. Many remedial programs whether based on visual or auditory methods of teaching reading omit these types of preparatory training among older pupils.

4. Individual diagnosis of learning ability under various individual or combined reading methods, and the relationships of appropriate method to such factors as intelligence, age, visual and auditory handicaps, etc., are not yet firmly established. Reading methods are chosen by a prior reasoning regardless of the characteristics of the retarded reader and since any methods succeed with a fair number of cases, the results are taken as indicative of proof of the teacher's wisdom.

### *Speech Education*

1. Investigation of relationship between speech education and improvement in reading skills; and of the relationships between speech defects and reading disabilities.

### *Social Studies*

1. Investigation of the development of spatial concepts in children with respect to maps and geographical concepts.
2. Investigation of the extent to which reading skills are being improved by social studies and other subject matter teachers at the secondary level—a responsibility often advocated.

### *Mathematics*

1. Survey to determine the arithmetical skills and knowledge in which high school graduates entering business occupations must have proficiency.
2. Identification of the concepts and functional competencies in mathematics needed for the general education of all students at the secondary level.
3. The background in mathematics needed for teaching courses in mathematics for general education.
4. Tests that present situations in which the methodology of mathematics is tested rather than computational skills.
5. Techniques for teaching mathematics inductively and for teaching students to think mathematically.
6. Non-technical publications that summarize the implications and practical applications of research in the teaching of mathematics.

### *Science*

1. Methodology for teaching effectively attitudes and problem-solving skills of science.
2. The background in science needed for teaching courses in science for general education.
3. Tests that present situations in which the methodology of science is tested rather than scientific facts.
4. Techniques for teaching science inductively and for teaching students to think scientifically.
5. Non-technical publications that summarize the implications and practical applications of research in the teaching of science.
6. Longitudinal studies of the development of science interest in children in order to aid in the early detection and facilitation of science interest and talent.

### *Administration*

1. Investigation to determine the extent to which varying types of homework assignments contribute to scholastic achievement and study skills.
2. Study of supervisory practices with respect to beginning teachers, their relative effectiveness, and the implications of induction and in-service training.
3. Study of the training needs of teachers returning to teach after prolonged absences due to marriage, family, etc.
4. Research into the brightness tolerance of elementary school children and the comparative effectiveness of the luminous-ceiling method of lighting.
5. For what kinds of learning can television be effectively used?
6. What are the strengths and weaknesses of television with respect to developing or changing skills, attitudes, understanding, and behavior?
7. Study of geographic and occupational mobility of teachers.
8. Longitudinal study of advantages and disadvantages of social promotion vs. non-promotion; of kindergarten vs. non-kindergarten; of various possible relationship to readiness for reading, numbers, etc.

### *Guidance*

1. Study of the development of in-group and out-group norms in children, e. g., religion, social, class, etc., and effect on inter-group perception and communication.
2. Study of development of concepts of masculine and feminine behavior in children.
3. Investigation of effects of homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping upon attitudes and motivation of children.

### *Contributors*

| | |
|---|---|
| Mallinson, | West-Michigan College of Education |
| Spache, | University of Florida |
| Garry, | Boston University |
| Phelps, | Boston University |
| Rarick, | University of Wisconsin |

About
Our Authors

A first grade teacher at the Brown School in Wellesley Hills, Mass., ***Faye M. Clark*** received her Master's degree in Education from Boston University in 1954. From 1946 to '52, Miss Clark taught first grade in East Hartford, Conn. Fishing and shooting "with my trusty 35 mm camera" are favorite hobbies.

***Mary M. Monahan*** is a Teacher-Principal of the first grade at the Tolman School in Stoughton, Mass. Miss Monahan enjoys skiing and tennis in her spare time.

Before becoming an Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Pittsburgh, ***Edwin H. Hill*** was an Assistant Professor at Sacramento State Teachers College in California. Before that he taught at the University of Iowa.

***Mrs. Edna Harrison*** is a sixth grade teacher at the Lawrence Elementary School in Wichita, Kansas. Mrs. Harrison has taught in the Wichita schools for nine years and during the war trained men and women in blueprint reading and inspection at the Boeing Aircraft Company. In addition to literature and foreign languages, the study of space travel is one of Mrs. Harrison's interests.

Although ***Florence J. Johnson*** is not a teacher she has many friends in the educational field which has resulted in her article this month, *The Keys to a Teaching Career.* Miss Johnson's vocation and hobby is writing with the aim of some day selling adult fiction. At the present time most of her work has been stories for young people.

An Associate Professor at the School of Education, University of Delaware, ***Elizabeth C. Lloyd*** was from 1946 to '53 an Assistant Professor of Education at Washington University and also supervisor of the Campus Nursery School. Dr. Lloyd has had articles published in *McCall's* magazine, the 31st Yearbook of Elementary School Principals, and various religious educational journals.

***Benjamin J. Novak*** is head of the Science Department of Frankford High School in Philadelphia and also a lecturer in Secondary Education at Temple University. The author of over 60 published articles, Dr. Novak in conjunction with Dr. Frank Král recently completed the first complete text in English on animal skin diseases, *Veterinary Dermatology.*

***Michael G. Mensoian*** is a teacher of the intermediate grades in the Columbus Park School in Worcester, Mass. At the present time Mr. Mensoian is working for his Certificate for Advanced Graduate Specialization in secondary administration and supervision at Boston University.

A French teacher at the Albuquerque, New Mexico High School, ***Helen Aldridge*** previously taught French and German at Alma College in Michigan. Mrs. Aldridge has had an article published in a recent issue of the *New Mexico School Review* and has written several unpublished bi-lingual plays for classroom use. She and her husband have a small ranch where they raise prize-winning horses. Mrs. Aldridge writes that they are avid boosters of their "beautiful state."

***Ella A. Hawkinson*** was head of the Department of History and Political Science at Hope College in Holland, Michigan, at the time of her death. She had taught summers at the Universities of Saskatchewan and Minnesota and during the year 1952-53 Dr. Hawkinson was in Norway on a Fulbright lectureship. She was very active in the work of UNESCO and in 1951 she was elected the state president. She was also responsible for the city of Holland's Community Ambassadorship program. Last Fall the city and Hope College inaugurated a Hawkinson Memorial Lecture Series in her honor.

*Our cover picture presents the oldest wooden schoolhouse in the U. S., located near the city gates in Saint Augustine, Florida. Built during the first Spanish Period, it became a school after the arrival of "The Minorcans." These people wished their children to learn English since they were to live among English speaking people and Juan Gianopli started a school for that purpose in this building which was his home. His daughter, Maria Gianopli, became the teacher. During the 37 years of the second Spanish Period this was the only co-educational institution in St. Augustine. There is a record of a class graduating here as late as 1864. The Picture comes to us through the courtesy of Bacon, Hartman & Vollbrecht, Inc., of St. Augustine.*

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*...a heart too small for breaking*

Here is a child's world — balanced on faith, lighted by love, warmed in the safety of a mother's arms, a father's smile. Here is a world of little hearts, all too small for breaking.

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